

# THE LEISURE HOUR

A FAMILY JOURNAL OF INSTRUCTION AND RECREATION.

"BEHOLD IN THESE WHAT LEISURE HOURS DEMAND,—AMUSEMENT AND TRUTH KNOWLEDGE HAND IN HAND."—*Cooper.*



IN THE FOREST.

## THE GREAT VAN BROEK PROPERTY.

CHAPTER XI.—AT HOME IN THE PARSONAGE, AND AMONG THE  
PASSES OF THE WHITE MOUNTAINS OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

THE parsonage was a large roomy cottage, built of wood, and painted white, with a slated roof, and with bright green jalousies to the windows. This was the style of most of the better class of houses in the village; and, though the general effect was too glaring, and not so pleasing to the eye as is the aspect of the neatly-thatched cottages of an English country village,

the place presented an appearance of thrift and prosperity that made full amends for the lack of the picturesque.

The parsonage, also, like most of the better class of houses, stood in its own garden; but, though the village of Acton was almost surrounded by woods and forests, the gardens were generally denuded of shade trees, and, to the eye of a stranger, presented in consequence a naked, cheerless aspect. This is a remarkable peculiarity in New England, and in a greater or lesser degree throughout the United States; and the only reason that can be assigned for it is that the Americans, and the

Yankees\* in particular, had, in earlier days, so much trouble to make clearings in the dense forests that originally covered the soil, that they learnt to regard the too close proximity of trees as an evil to be avoided if possible; and the dislike to the presence of trees, or to any kind of shade, near their dwellings, thus engendered among the early settlers, has been transmitted to their posterity. The parsonage, however, boasted of a rustic porch, over which roses and woodbine and honeysuckles were trained, and of a glazed shed, which did duty as a conservatory; and these, together, served in some measure to redeem the otherwise unsightly angularity and barrenness of the dwelling itself.

One morning, a few days after the events narrated in the preceding chapter, George Neville, on entering the breakfast-parlour, remarked an unusual air of pre-occupation in the faces of his uncle, aunt, and cousin. The morning meal, during which the family were wont to converse of the duties and occupations of the day, was hurriedly despatched, and after breakfast Mr. Upton, contrary to his usual custom, immediately retired to his study, and Mrs. Upton hastily quitted the room. Her daughter Mary was about to follow her, when she suddenly addressed her cousin, saying—

"Cousin George, do you intend to take a long walk to-day?"

"Why do you ask, Mary?" replied the young man. "I have hardly made up my mind in what manner to occupy myself."

"Because I think you'd best take a long walk somewhere. You'd better stay away till late in the afternoon. We shall not have any regular dinner; so you can tell Betty to cut you some sandwiches, and put them in your pocket. Then you'll be out of the way, you know. We've got papa locked up in the study."

"Upon my word, cousin Mary," said George, laughingly, "this is cavalier-like treatment. You've locked my uncle in the study, and you order me out of the house. I shall stand upon my dignity. I won't stir a peg unless you give me good reasons for your ungracious behaviour."

"Why," said cousin Mary, "don't you know? Hasn't mamma told you?"

"Hasn't mamma told me what? I know nothing, only that everybody seems out of sorts this morning, and the house seems as if it were turned upside down."

"You silly fellow! Well, then, there's a surprise donation party coming this afternoon, and we've caught them, and shall be beforehand with them."

"Worse and worse. What on earth is a surprise donation party? and how have you caught them? and what shall you be beforehand with?"

"Well, I'm sure!" exclaimed the young lady, "those are pretty questions to ask. It's easy to see that you are a benighted Englishman, cousin George. However, I'll explain. A surprise donation party is a—surprise donation—How stupid of you, George, to be so ignorant! I really cannot explain. You must ask mamma. And here she comes. Mamma" (to Mrs. Upton, who at this moment entered the room), "I've been explaining to George what is meant by a surprise donation party, and he won't understand; and he's so obstinate, he won't go out of the house. I wish you'd try to make him understand, mamma;" and, in answer to the call of one of the servants, cousin Mary quitted the room.

\* The author of this story wishes it to be understood that the term Yankee, whenever used, is not applied in derision. The New-Englanders themselves are proud of the appellation, and boast that they are the only true Yankees. The word, as many of our readers are aware, is supposed to be derived from the Indians, who, in their broken dialect, called the English "Yengese."

"Oh, George," said Mrs. Upton, "I was looking for you, my dear. Andy, who was at the post-office early this morning, brought word back that he had heard that preparations were making yesterday throughout the parish for a donation party, and that they intend to make it a surprise. That, of course, accounts for our not having heard a word about it. They'll be here this afternoon; but, instead of catching us unawares, as they anticipate, they'll find us prepared to receive them; though, of course, we shall not let them perceive that we anticipated the visit, if we can avoid it. Now, as the house will be, as I may say, turned inside out, and will not be a very comfortable place for those who are not busied in the preparations, I think you'd better go and take one of your long walks, my dear. Take a good luncheon with you, and mind and be home by five o'clock; because I want you to meet the party, and I shouldn't wonder if a good many young ladies come expressly to be personally introduced to you. I've got the minister locked up in the study with the cold beef-steak pie we had for dinner yesterday, and a bottle of cider, and I've got the key in my pocket. I'll lock you up with him, if you prefer it, dear, or I can put you in the lumber-room; but I suspect you'd sooner go for a walk."

"By all means, aunt," said the young man, laughing in spite of himself (for Mrs. Upton was quite serious) at the idea of being locked up with his uncle in the study. "I've no wish to be locked up in a close room this fine day; besides, in that case we should want some more cider, even if the pie would serve us both. But, dear aunt, what is it all about? I really don't understand a single word you have said."

"I thought Mary said she had explained to you, dear!"

"Cousin Mary explained!" exclaimed the young man. "She told me, as you have done, aunt, to get out of the way until the afternoon; and when I asked her reasons for making such a request, she said there was to be a surprise donation party, and that a surprise donation party meant—a surprise donation party. At least such, I presume, would have been her explanation had she finished the sentence, instead of which, however, she ran away when you entered the room."

Mrs. Upton smiled at her nephew's perplexity.

"I will sit down and rest me awhile, my dear," she said, "for Andy brought the news soon after daybreak, and I have been stirring about ever since, and I'll try to explain to you what a donation party means. Of course you don't know. How should you know, just coming from home?" (The kind-hearted lady, like many people in America who are not English by birth, always spoke of the "old country" as "home.") "You must know, George, that it is the custom in New England, and in some other parts of the United States, for the well-to-do members of the country churches to get up a party, once or twice a year, with the object of making up the deficiency in the ministers' salaries. The farmers and other folk, with their wives and daughters, pay a visit to the parsonage, and bring with them presents of every description—some one thing and some another, and generally they make up a little purse besides. Then they have a feast out of a portion of the good things they have contributed, and spend the evening at the minister's house. It's very troublesome when it's an ordinary donation party; but sometimes they make it a 'surprise'—that

\* I have often heard elderly American gentlemen, whose parents were Americans, and who had never set foot beyond American soil, after having made up their minds to undertake a long-contemplated journey to the "old country," express themselves to the effect that "They were going to take a trip home at last."

is, they get up the party secretly among themselves, and the first the minister's family knows of it is when the house is suddenly invaded by a throng of people, who come on foot, on horseback, and in carriages, from all parts of the parish. They catch the family unawares, and enjoy the confusion and astonishment, or rather surprise, that their appearance creates. Fortunately, to-day we shall be prepared for them; for it's very annoying to be caught *en déshabille*, though we mustn't let them think we've been preparing for them, or they may feel affronted."

"I should say that it is you who have the greatest reason to feel affronted, aunt, at such a Vandal-like invasion into your domestic privacy," replied the young Englishman. "To my mind the custom seems a most humiliating one to the recipients of this eleemosynary bounty. It is simply a charitable subscription, on the part of the congregation, towards the support of the minister's family. Why do not the church members pay their ministers a sufficient salary to enable the latter to dispense with this bounty?"

"They will not, George," replied Mrs. Upton. "In the large towns and cities the ministers of religion are generally well, and frequently munificently, remunerated, but in country places their salaries are usually small, and frequently very irregularly paid. Our farmers are well off and independent; but their wealth consists in land and stock, and in the produce of their fields. Ready money is scarce among them, or, at all events, they cling to it with miserly tenacity, and are unwilling to part with it unless in the purchase of additional land. The desire to possess large farms, even though the high price of labour prohibits them from working half their acres, is a mania among our New England farmers. I have known them to pay, year after year, heavy taxes for land they are unable to render productive. These taxes keep many of them poor; and the craving to increase the size of their farms causes all of them to hoard every dollar they can get hold of. I don't know what some poor ministers would do but for the donation parties; and yet they are a source of great annoyance. The farmers generally bring a supply of their most abundant crops; consequently each family is liable to contribute the same description of produce; and I have known ministers' families at one time to be overwhelmed with potatoes, at another time with apples or with turnips, and to be so abundantly supplied with certain provisions, of which they had already a sufficient supply on hand, that they have not known what to do with them. The money value of the gifts would be vastly more acceptable."

"But, aunt," said the young man, "why do not the ministers unite and insist upon a fair remuneration for their services?"

"My dear boy," replied Mrs. Upton, "such an attempt would result in utter failure. As I have observed, it is frequently difficult for the ministers to collect their salaries. Your uncle's church members are frequently in arrears; and, but that we possess a little independent income of our own, we should sometimes be hard put to it to make both ends meet at the end of the year. I will give you an instance that will explain to you the difficulties of which I speak. You recollect meeting Mr. Hurlbert—the minister of Stanton—soon after you came to us?"

George nodded in assent.

"Well," continued Mrs. Upton, "Mr. Hurlbert is an excellent preacher, who, I dare say, could obtain a 'call' to some city church if he wished it, and therefore—though he has got attached to his people, and don't care

to leave them—he is able to tell them some wholesome truths when he chooses. They dare not take affront, because they are afraid in such case he would leave them, and they don't want to lose him."

"Well, Mr. Hurlbert was 'called' to Stanton about fifteen years ago. He was a young minister; indeed it was his first 'call,' and he went on trial at a salary of one hundred dollars a year, and to board round at the farmers' houses. At the end of a year his salary was increased to two hundred dollars, and soon afterwards he got married. Of course then he wished to live in his own house, and his salary was raised on that account to three hundred dollars, and he had a house rent free. In the course of three years more his family was increased by the birth of two children. His salary was altogether insufficient for his support, and he made application for an increase, and with some difficulty obtained the promise of an additional hundred dollars. His fame as a preacher got abroad. His church was always well filled, and people came from a distance to hear him. The Stanton folk were proud of their minister, and one day, when he had been about eight years in the parish, the 'select men' called a meeting, and proposed voluntarily to raise his salary to five hundred dollars a year, and it was resolved that the welcome intelligence should be publicly announced to the minister at the close of the next Thursday evening lecture, which was usually given in the school-house. The Thursday evening came round. The lecture was brought to a close, and, as soon as Mr. Hurlbert had resumed his seat, the leading elder rose, and, with a pompous flourish, announced to the minister the generous determination at which the 'select men' had arrived; and no sooner had the elder sat down than Mr. Hurlbert rose to reply; and, to the astonishment of every one present, instead of expressing his sense of their generosity, he said—

"Dear sisters and brothers, I am grateful for the good-will which has doubtless induced you to make me this generous offer of an increase of salary. I am proud of the proof it affords of your appreciation of my services; but I respectfully beg to decline its acceptance; and at the same time permit me to express a hope that, so long as I remain with you, you will never again think of increasing my salary."

"The congregation stared at each other in amazement. They were well aware that their minister was solely dependent upon his salary, and they had a shrewd suspicion that he was sometimes sorely troubled to avoid getting into debt. At length the presiding elder again rose, and begged the minister to explain why he refused the offer.

"My friends," said Mr. Hurlbert, "if you insist upon an explanation, I will give it. I came among you, eight years ago, a very young man, at a mere nominal salary of one hundred dollars a year. It was punctually paid. At the end of a year my salary was, voluntarily on your part, raised to two hundred dollars. It was still paid with tolerable punctuality. I married my present wife, and I asked for an increase of salary. Three hundred dollars a year were offered, and accepted. Then my troubles began, for you were frequently in arrears with your payments; nevertheless, everything was generally fairly settled up at the end of the year. My family increased; I found three hundred dollars a year insufficient for my support. I asked and was promised an increase to the amount of four hundred dollars a year. Since that period I have had the utmost difficulty to get my quarterly payments; you have frequently been half-a-year in arrears, and I have found myself more sorely



pressed for money than ever I was before my salary was raised. I have grown attached to the parish, and to my people. I do not wish to leave you, if I can help it. But I am very much afraid, if I permit you to increase my salary to five hundred dollars, that I shall never be able to get any money at all out of you."

"Some were offended at the minister's free speech. Some felt shame at their own meanness, and others laughed at the joke; however, before another twelve months had elapsed, Mr. Hurlbert's salary was voluntarily raised to eight hundred dollars, and it has ever since been most punctually paid in regular quarterly instalments."\*

"Well, aunt," said George, "that anecdote tends to give strength to my proposition. If all country ministers were to speak out boldly as Mr. Hurlbert did, the result might be similar in all cases."

"Not so, my dear," replied Mrs. Upton. "Mr. Hurlbert is one in a thousand. The church members would not have brooked such a severe reproof from an ordinary preacher; but they were well aware that Mr. Hurlbert could, had he so chosen, have obtained a call to Boston, and a salary of one, or perhaps two thousand dollars a year, whenever he chose to accept it. But I am sitting chatting here when there are a hundred matters to be looked after. Go, my dear, and take a long walk—only be sure to be home by five o'clock, and you will see what to you will be a novel and an amusing sight."

Mrs. Upton left the room to look after her multifarious duties, and George took his hat, and, with his gun under his arm, sallied forth to take a long ramble among the mountain passes. Sometimes clambering up the mountain sides, at other times forcing his way through dense brushwood and thicket, and hoping that he might be fortunate enough to fall in with a bear, or a wild-cat, or even a deer, that he might have something to boast about on his return home, and yet keeping a cautious look-out that one or other of the first-mentioned animals might not fall in with him when he was unprepared to meet them, George penetrated more deeply into the mountain solitudes than he had ever done before. He might, however, have spared himself his hopes and fears; for, though bears and wild-cats, or "painters" (panthers), as they are termed by the country-people, are still to be found in the forests and among the fastnesses of the White Mountains of New Hampshire, they are rarely to be met with now-a-days even by the professional hunter, unless early in the spring of the year, when the bears sometimes venture out of their solitudes in search of the wild strawberries which grow in abundance in the Northern States of America, and of which these animals are immoderately fond.

At length he ascended to a plateau from which he hoped to obtain an extended view of the surrounding scenery; and his exertions were not unrewarded. The mountains shut out the view on one side, but on the other side he looked down into a valley several miles in length, though scarcely half a mile in breadth. The elevation of the plateau on which he stood was nearly one thousand feet above the level of the sea, and the valley lay extended beneath him as if its lines were traced out upon a map. He gazed down upon forests of larch and pine and cedar, clothed in various sombre hues of evergreen—the topmost branches of the tallest trees scarcely reaching to half his elevation—and upon numerous cascades which had their source from springs on the mountain side, and which swirled and foamed, and tossed and tumbled from rugged point to point,

\* A literal fact, known to the writer, though the name of the minister and the locality of the church are changed.

until their waters mingled in the rocky, shallow bed of the narrow, tortuous stream that wound its erratic course through the centre of the glen, the waters still foaming, as if with rage against the obstacles they had to encounter, until they forced a passage through the intricate channel. Not a sound was audible in the air above and around him; and the low murmurs of the falling water beneath him, mingling with the rustling of the leaves of the forest trees, and the occasional hoarse cry of a raven, as it winged its dusky flight from ledge to ledge, or the fall of a stone dislodged from its bed in the mountain side, which bounded and rebounded from rock to rock, awakening the slumbering echoes of the glen, until it fell with a plash into the foaming torrent—which were the only sounds that broke the solemn silence of the spot—seemed to him to increase the almost oppressive sense of solitude that he experienced. He seated himself on the edge of the steep declivity near which he had been standing, and gave himself up to the thoughts suggested by the—to him—novel and impressive scenery. On the opposite rising ground the deciduous trees and shrubs had already changed the bright green foliage of summer for their many-hued autumnal garb, and the brilliant colours, ranging from golden-yellow to orange, or from pink to bright scarlet or rich crimson, or still deeper red, formed a lively contrast with the sombre evergreen of the forest trees in the glen.

"I could almost fancy," thought the young Englishman, "that this spot had rested in silent solitude since the Indian pitched his wigwam on the plateau on which I sit, and walked forth in the bright moonlight, after his return from the chase, to gaze into the dark valley beneath, and commune with the *manitou*, who had there taken up his earthly abode."

"I can fancy him, when the storm raged furiously, and the thunder reverberated among the mountains, and the forked lightnings illumined the glen, listening, awestruck, to the voice of the great Spirit, expressed in the awful sounds, or fancying that the wail of the wind among the forest trees, and the rush of the swollen mountain torrents, and the wild echoes that resounded from the valley, were the voices of his ancestors whose shades haunted the secluded solitudes, holding solemn conclave in their mysterious depths."

"But centuries have passed away since the red-man roamed over the mountains, and through the forests, lord of all he surveyed. The pale-faces have claimed the land as their own; and, driven from the hunting-grounds of his forefathers, the poor Indian has passed away for ever, or only lingers—a wretched outcast on the soil!"

The young man had spoken his thoughts aloud in his enthusiasm, when he was startled by the sound of a voice which in a moment scattered his romance to the winds.

"What's that I hearn yer sayin' 'bout Injins, friend? Seen any o' the varmints 'reound?"

The head and shoulders of a lanky, swallow-faced individual suddenly appeared above the edge of the plateau, and George, who was at first somewhat disconcerted by the stranger's sudden appearance, and not well pleased to have his fanciful reverie thus interrupted, soon recollected that he had frequently seen the intruder upon his privacy in church, and in the streets of the village. The man was almost out of breath with scaling the nearly perpendicular precipice, but, as soon as he got one arm over the ledge, so as to rest himself, he went on—

"Yere, stranger, ketch a hold o' this pesky rod, and



these yere trout," handing the young Englishman half-a-dozen mountain trout, strung together by the gills with a thin withe, and a fishing-rod formed from a peeled willow-wand. "It's an awful pull up this steep, 'specially with a load tew carry."

Freed from his incumbrances, the intruder now raised himself up with both hands, and sprung on to the ledge, and, seating himself by the side of the young Englishman, he wiped the perspiration from his brow with a pocket-handkerchief which he took from the crown of his broad-rimmed straw hat, and then, replacing the hat and handkerchief upon his head, he said—

"You're the minister's nevey, I guess? My name's Seth Coulter. I live at the farm-'us on the Plainfield road, 'beout half a mile eout beyond the village, when I'm tew hum. Seen me afore, I reckon? But what's that I heern yer say 'beout Injins? Ain't *reely* seen none o' the pesky varmints reound abeout, hev yer?"

"No," replied George, "I wish I had. I was foolishly talking to myself, I believe, and wishing I *could* see the Indians as they existed two centuries ago, when the red-man was lord of the soil."

"Yer ain't got no *call* tew wish nothin' o' the sort, I reckon, friend," answered Seth. "Mought lose some o' yer har ef yer seen the critturs as they wor *then*. We don't want none o' the miser'ble, thievin' wretches yere—that's a fac'. As tew thar bein' lords o' the sile, I reckon heow the sile b'longs to *us*; and we ain't got no lords in this yere country—and don't want any. But, I tell yer, yer skeered me pooty consider'ble when I heern yer speak o' Injins. I've got a druv o' hogs eout in the woods, back o' the village, and if any o' them pesky Injins was l'iterin' reound, I reckon heow I'd hev a short account o' the critturs."

"Are they such determined thieves, the Indians?" asked George.

"Detarmined thieves!" exclaimed Seth. "I b'lieve yer. Why, 'twarn't on'y last fall, 'beout this time, they stul a beef-crittur o' Deacon Willis's. The deacon found the skeleton-kercass o' the crittur arterwards deown in the gully t'other side o' the red barn. I reckon heow deacon lost twenty dollars by that ar job. But, come, mister, be yer gooin' on tew hum? It's gittin' late, I guess, by the look o' the sun. Ef yer a-goo'in' on tew the parsonage, I don't keer if I walk 'long with yer fur company."

George looked at his watch, and found that he would hardly reach the parsonage by five o'clock, and, fearing that he would again lay himself open to a charge of want of punctuality, he rose to his feet, took up his gun, and he and Seth Coulter set out homeward together.

## THE POETRY OF THE BIBLE.

### II.

EARLY HEBREW LITERATURE—ITS PROGRESS AND DECLINE—DIVERSITIES OF COMPOSITION—EXTINCTION OF THE LANGUAGE.

Those who have not applied their minds to biblical studies are apt to form a very erroneous notion of the state of literary culture amongst the Hebrews. Without thinking over it, they accept the canonical books of the Old Testament as comprising the sum and substance of the Hebrew literature, whereas they comprise only a portion of it, although, in a religious point of view, the most valuable or important.

The art of writing amongst the Hebrews, even before the time of Moses, was well known, as is proved by a number of minute circumstances, comprised in the Pentateuchal history, concerning the patriarchs. In

the time of Moses the engraving of signets was practised (Ex. xxviii. 11, 21, 36), which presents to us the art of writing; besides which there are frequent references to the *skoterim*, or writers amongst the people, both before and after the Exodus. The people, too, were to inscribe passages of the law on their door-posts and gates (Deut. vi. 9), and on *tephelim* or *phylacteries*, which they were to wear for a sign on their hands and between their eyes, or on their foreheads (Ex. xiii. 16; Deut. vi. 8; xi. 18, etc.); all which implies a knowledge of the art of writing.

But we have evidence, not only that the use of letters and the art of writing were well known amongst the Semitic races, but that literature was cultivated by them in very early times.

Besides the Pentateuch, which the tradition of the Jewish and the Christian churches, authenticated by the seal of Christ himself, has always attributed to Moses, and which exhibits not only the simple and unadorned style of historic narrative, but the lofty flights of sacred eloquence and poetic fervour, we have other and earlier specimens of the literature of these distinguished peoples. Of these, we may mention the book of Job, which belongs to the period that intervened between the great apostasy of Nimrod and the call of Abram; as also the blessing of Jacob, which belongs to that era when the Hebrews, afterwards trodden down and oppressed there, were among the most powerful and distinguished personages of the kingdom of Egypt.

It is not probable that these compositions, which exhibit so much art in their construction, and so much precision in their language, should have been left to mere floating traditions, which can scarcely perpetuate the memory of a simple fact without so overlaying it with fiction as to almost destroy its identity, and which are altogether inadequate to the preservation of anything which depends upon strict verbal accuracy.

There can be no doubt that these were among the written records and memoranda which Moses, under Divine direction and guidance, incorporated into the Pentateuch and moulded into the book of Job. This is rendered the more probable, as we perceive every now and then sundry metrical compositions cropping out into the level surface of the Mosaic narrative—as, for example, Lamech's response to his wives, when appealed to to inflict death upon the fratricide (Gen. iv. 23, 24); Noah's prophecy of the destiny of his sons (Gen. ix. 25—27); Sarah's song after the birth of Isaac (Gen. xxi. 6, 7); the response to Rebecca, when she went to inquire of the Lord concerning the children who were to be born of her (Gen. xxx. 22, 23); and the valedictory songs spoken of by Laban in relation to the departure of his son-in-law Jacob (Gen. xxxi. 27).

As we advance in the history, the proofs of literary culture and composition become more numerous and decided, as well as of the cultivation of the kindred art of music. The triumphal song of Moses, Miriam, and the children of Israel, after the passage of the Red Sea and the signal destruction of Pharaoh and his hosts (Ex. xv.); the song of Deborah and Barak after the death of Sisera (Judges v.); and the extracts from "The Book of the Wars of the Lord" (Num. xxi.)—all show, not only that poetical composition was cultivated, but that the art of music, as in chorus and part singing, was practised among the people. Whether it was also practised in the time of Laban and Jacob, when the latter was reproved by the former for having stolen away secretly, so that he had not the opportunity of sending him forth with mirth and with songs, with tabret and with

harp, is not certain; although, much earlier than this, we hear of the use of the timbrel, and the harp, and the organ (Job xxi. 12), which were, indeed, invented in the family of Lamech, who was the fifth only from Cain (Gen. iv.)

Having referred to the extracts from "The Book of the Wars of the Lord," in Numbers xxi., it may be well to pause for a few minutes to render the references more intelligible than they are in our English version.

The passage, including the introduction, and the ancient panegyric or triumphant song, should be read thus:—

"Therefore it is said in the Book of the Wars of Jehovah, with Waheb in Sufhab, and the torrents of Arnon, even the flowing of the torrents which inclineth to the dwellings of Ar, and lieth for the border of Moab; and from thence to the well; that is, the well of which Jehovah said to Moses, Gather the people together, and I will give them water. Then sang Israel this song—

Spring up, O well! Answer ye to it.  
The well princes search'd out;  
Nobles of the people digged it,  
As by a decree, upon their borders.

And from the wilderness [rather the well, as it is in the Septuagint] they went to Matthanah," etc.

Here we no doubt have a fragment from an old book, defining the northern boundaries of the Midianites, and embodying part of a poetical composition.

In verses 27—30 of the same chapter we have further extracts from the same book, and, what is quite to the purpose of these remarks, a perfect ode, comprising three parts: (1) the insults of Sihon over the conquered Moabites; (2) the compassion of Israel over the desolate Moab, with a bitter sarcasm against their deity Chemosh; (3) the revenge taken by Israel upon the whole country of Sihon, the limits of which are specified.

## I.

"Come ye to Heshbon, let it be rebuilt:  
The city of Sihon, let it be established.  
For from Heshbon the fire went out,  
And a flame from the city of Sihon;  
It hath consumed the city of Moab,  
With the lords of the heights of Arnon.

## II.

"Alas for thee, O Moab!  
Thou hast perished, O people of Chemosh!  
He hath given up his fugitive sons  
And his daughters into captivity,  
By the king of the Amorites, Sihon.

## III.

"But on them have we lifted destruction,  
From Heshbon even to Dibon:  
We have destroyed even to Nophah,  
The fire did reach to Medebah."

But this epoch in the history of the Hebrews was too warlike and unsettled to be favourable to the cultivation of literature; while that immediately succeeding had too little of a theocratic character for literary efforts of the highest description to flourish. It was during this epoch that the poetic period, which soon after followed, and which reached its highest point of excellence in the age of David and Solomon, was preparing. The literary works of Solomon were extensive and varied, and it cannot be doubted that there were others in his time who were animated by a similar spirit, and occupied themselves in the same way.

There were many circumstances in this period which conspired to give an impulse to literature beyond anything afterwards known. The age of heroes and of heroic deeds had passed; a milder state of things had succeeded, and such as was favourable for the appearance of an era of song. This, however, would never have taken the direction it did—the poetry would have been merely secular, and would have had nothing to do with

the service of theocracy, had not a newly-awakened life arisen in the midst of it. Of this life, of the deeply religious character of this period, the fulness and the wealth is its poetry, some of which has been preserved and is handed down to us in the Bible.

The principal care of David and Solomon was the worship of God: even among the priests there were singers, and we find families of singers constituted. The schools of the prophets, formed by Samuel, during this period, were also, at least in part, of service to poetry; with song and instrumental music they recited their sacred hymns (1 Sam. x. 5; xix. 19, 20).

We may note a marked progress in the art of poetry during this its golden age. The compositions belonging to the time of David are noble, but simple. By far the greater number of the Psalms belonging to this period are written in an easy and flowing style. The simple object, the inartificial outpourings of the heart to God in prayer, brought with it that more facile lyric strain which belongs to the language of these Psalms; but especially the liturgic intention of them had this effect, for it was needful, on this account, to take great care in respect of the expression, lest they should fail of being a common good to the multitude. Hence the great simplicity and naturalness of their style, which is never elevated into the boldness or noble temerity which astonishes us in other poetic parts of the Scriptures—as in Moses, Job, and the Prophets. David is satisfied when all his words are noble, when they are emphatic enough and suited to his sentiments. His language is not without its ornament; but artificial skill is less noticeable than force and directness of utterance.

Under Solomon poetry received a new culture, which called forth new kinds of it, corresponding to the natural relations of the two rulers, the former of whom devoted himself chiefly to the inner essence, the latter to the outward form and significance of the Theocracy. Solomon's far-famed wisdom appears to us chiefly in his poetical performances; for we have lost those voluminous works of his which are referred to (1 Kings iv. 29—34) as amongst the proofs of his great wisdom and understanding and largeness of heart (in which he excelled all the wisdom of the children of the east country, and all the wisdom of Egypt), and in which he "spoke of trees, from the cedar tree that is in Lebanon even unto the hyssop that springeth out of the wall, and of beasts, and of fowl, and of creeping things, and of fishes." His songs, as we learn from the same sacred record, were a thousand and five; and to him especially is ascribed (1 Chron. v. 12) the composition of *maschals* and larger poems—that is, continuous poetical compositions, as distinguished from the *mismor*, a song to be accompanied by instruments, and the *maskil*, as a *dictum breve*, or brief ode. This indicates the progress of the poetic art; for there is not only the cessation of the ancient, original, and close conjunction of the singer and poet, but also the cultivation of a new kind of poetry.

The sad state of things which succeeded the reign of Solomon, in consequence of the final revolt of the tribes from the royal house of David, and the internal corruption of worship and religion, produced also on the literature an effect in the highest degree injurious.

Whilst the kings and princes of Israel offered homage to idols, and even the priests of Jehovah shared in the wicked tendency, there arose the prophets as a salutary counteraction to them. Working by verbal admonition and mighty deeds, they sought first what was still to be saved among the impenitent populace; but as, with Israel's progressive sinfulness, the terrible judgments of God drew ever the nearer, and as the prophet's vocation

had to do with the future as well as the present, the need of the written word became felt; and hence their practical activity grew to be chiefly exercised in the department of writing. In consequence of this a new species of literature came into existence, which cannot in a formal respect be classed with the poetry of the immediately preceding period, and which may be regarded as rhetorical poetry, though the style is found to differ according to the period to which it belongs. In the oldest of the prophets, Hosea, Jonah, and Amos, the language appears as yet not fully cultivated, and there are many harsh expressions, and many more of a peculiar kind, some of them belonging to the vulgar speech. The later prophets, Joel, Isaiah, Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, and Obadiah, are remarkable, some more than others, for the most beautiful peronomasias, or plays on words, a special ornament of the Oriental style, which, however, is found only in those writers who, in the fullest sense, are the masters of their language. The prophets of the captivity again have their marked style, which is characterized by a literary degeneracy, the language being corrupted by foreign words and expressions, as well as by the unclassical use of some words that are good Hebrew. Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Zephaniah, Daniel, and Malachi, as well as the historical books of this period, all more or less exhibit this degenerate and corrupted style of the language.

The variety of style in the Old Testament writers, we may observe in passing, is a proof of the truth and genuineness of the records. Not only do the special peculiarities of the several authors appear, but the diversities of the language, from the times and circumstances in which they wrote.

In spite of the labours of some of the later prophets, as Haggai, Malachi, and Zechariah, to reproduce a purer Hebrew, the sacred language gradually and very rapidly ceased to be a living tongue. To some it has seemed as if nothing short of a miracle could have made the Jews, within so short a space of time, forget their mother-tongue, especially as many who returned to their fatherland had been born before the captivity (Ex. iii. 12). The fact is, however, beyond all doubt that in the time of Jeremiah the Hebrew was not known by the people, and that when the priests and levites read in the law of God, they were obliged to append thereto the sense, and explain what was read (Neh. viii. 8). In the era of our Saviour it was completely extinct, even in its character as the language of literature. The Jews who did not speak Greek used the Aramaic or Palestinian-Syriac, as it has been named.

#### PRESIDENT ANDREW JOHNSON.

THE name of Andrew Johnson has suddenly become famous, and bids fair to be a notable one in history. The painfully tragic circumstances which placed him in his present exalted position, and the magnitude of the duties and responsibilities which at this juncture attach to that position, were alone sufficient to attract to Andrew Johnson the attention of the whole civilized world, and particularly of the people of Great Britain—a country whose interests are in many respects so closely allied to those of the United States.

Andrew Johnson was born at Raleigh, the State capital of North Carolina, on the 29th of December, 1808, and has consequently not long completed his fifty-seventh year. At ten years of age he lost his father, a man in a humble position of life, who died from the effects of over-fatigue and exposure, through his exer-

tions to save a friend from drowning. His father being dead, and his mother entirely dependent upon her own exertions, Andrew was apprenticed forthwith to a tailor in his native city, with whom he remained working steadily through the term of his indenture, a period of seven years. Having completed his term of apprenticeship in 1824, when still under seventeen years of age, he removed to Lauren's Court-house, South Carolina, where he worked as a journeyman for nearly two years, and while living in this little village he engaged himself to be married to a young woman of about his own age. The match, however, was broken off, through the interference of mutual friends, on the score of the youth of the contracting parties, and their absolute want of means. Andrew Johnson returned to Raleigh, and, after residing there for a brief period, set off to seek his fortune in the West, accompanied by his mother, who, now growing old and infirm, was entirely dependent upon her son for support. He selected Greenville, a small town in East Tennessee, for his future home, and immediately commenced to work there as a journeyman tailor.

Of his first appearance at Greenville, the correspondent of an American newspaper gives the following account:—

"Many years ago, on a certain evening, a rude, black-haired, black-eyed, good-looking lad drove into the village with a poor old horse in a little one-horse vehicle, in which was his mother, and also a few household goods. He succeeded in securing a humble habitation to rent; and, this secured, his next object was to obtain employment by which to live. The lad began to seek for tailoring work, but his youth made it appear something of a risk to intrust him with the making-up of cloth. His honest appearance, however, and his anxiety to obtain employment, pleaded in his favour; an influential citizen gave him an order to make a coat for himself, with the advice to do his best, and told him at the same time that, if he made a good job of it, he would have no difficulty to get work in future. He did his best, and succeeded so well that he gained the confidence of his employer, and, through his influence, had abundance of work immediately placed in his hands."

Owing partly to the poverty of his parents, and partly to the entire lack of common school facilities which, at that period, even more than at the present, characterized the State of North Carolina, Johnson's education was totally neglected: indeed, he has stated himself that he never attended school a single day in his life. His latent thirst for knowledge, however, was developed by a very simple incident. A benevolent gentleman of Raleigh was in the habit of going into the shop in which Johnson worked, and reading to the journeymen, while they plied the needle. He was an excellent reader, and his favourite book was a volume of speeches, principally of British statesmen. The themes he selected doubtless chimed with the latent oratorical proclivities of his youthful auditor, who became deeply interested in the subject chosen, and ambitious first to equal the gentleman as a reader, and then to master the contents of the volume. He went to work to learn the alphabet, which task he soon accomplished, and then asked for the loan of the book that had so captivated his fancy. The owner gave him the book, and furthermore good-naturedly gave him some instruction relative to the use of letters in the formation of words. By dint of that energy which afterwards served him so well, he soon overcame all obstacles in the way of learning; and, becoming an intense student, and snatching, for the purposes of study, the hours his companions in his labours gave to rest and recreation, often after ten and eleven



hours' work on the shop-board, he was in a short time able to read with tolerable facility.

estimable woman, who from the first exercised a benign influence over his future career. She aided him to com-



ANDREW JOHNSON'S SHOP AT GREENVILLE, EAST TENNESSEE.



THE RESIDENCE OF PRESIDENT JOHNSON AT GREENVILLE.

During the first year of his residence at Greenville he had the good fortune to marry an intelligent and

plete those rudiments of knowledge which he had commenced to master during the years of his apprenticeship.

He now learned to write, and soon added a respectable store of miscellaneous information to his other acquirements. Nor was he long ere he put his acquirements to practical use; for within five years from the date on

was the germ of an aristocratic clique, which struggled feebly and ineffectually to resist the democratic leaning of the State. It was against this straggling offshoot of the Southern oligarchy that Mr. Johnson first tried his



*Andrew Johnson*

which he set foot in Greenville he entered the arena of public life.

Although, as a "poor whiteman" in the Southern States, he had many prejudices of caste to contend against which would have been spared to him had he been of Northern States birth, he had still, perhaps, a better field for the exercise of his laudable ambition at Greenville than in many or most other parts of the South. East Tennessee was, and still is, the social antipode of North and South Carolina. Traversed by the Blue Ridge Mountains—a spur of the magnificent Alleghany range—it is a thoroughly Alpine region, both physically and socially. The people are primitive, honest, thrifty, warm-hearted, and hospitable. Nearly all of them are possessed of a good plain English education, a rare thing among the poorer classes of whites in other parts of the South; and, though in the heart of the slave-holding States, Tennessee never possessed many slaves—hardly one to twenty of the whole population.

There was, therefore, no slaveocracy in the country sufficiently powerful to monopolize offices of honour and profit; yet even in the little town of Greenville there

strength. His sober industry and intelligence won the favour of the grave and sedate elders of the village, and his good temper, and genial tolerance of the jovial groups which frequented his unpretending little shop, secured him unbounded popularity with the young men of the place. Accordingly a dozen of the leading men met on Saturday evening (election-day being on the following Monday) at the office of one of their number, and placed Andrew Johnson on the ticket for alderman, unknown to himself. Everything was kept secret until the Monday morning, when the party went to the polls and worked vigorously. The whole ticket was elected by a sweeping majority, and Andrew was, with the others, duly installed, and held his office, with great credit to himself and much benefit to the town, for two successive terms. In the year 1830 he was chosen mayor, which position, though only twenty-two years of age when chosen, he held with honour and dignity for three years; and in 1835, at the age of twenty-seven, the journeyman tailor, who could not read at fifteen years of age, was elected member of the Legislature for the State in which he resided.

Mr. Johnson continued to be a member of the State Legislature until 1848, when he was elected a member of Congress; and a striking proof of the confidence reposed by his constituents in his integrity and ability as a statesman is manifested in the fact that for ten years he continued, by successive re-elections, to represent the Congressional district in which he resided in East Tennessee.

Steadily advancing in his political career, he quickly rose to positions of yet greater dignity and responsibility. In 1853 he was elected Governor of Tennessee; in 1855 he was re-elected to the same office; and in 1857 he was chosen to fill a seat in the United States Senate; and finally, in the election of 1864, the people of the entire North gave a proof of their appreciation of his services to his country by placing him on the ticket with President Lincoln and making him Vice-President of the United States; from which position he succeeded to the Presidential chair, as Vice-Presidents Tyler and Fillmore had done before him, by consequence of the death of the President while in office.

Of President Johnson's career, and of the course by which he succeeded in ingratiating himself with the loyal people of the Union, we have not space to dilate in this brief memoir. Suffice it to say, therefore, that, from the very commencement of his public life, he was ever in favour of extending the rights of the citizens, and increasing the direct responsibility of the Government to the people. From the period of his first appearance as a public speaker he raised his voice in indignant protest against the political encroachments of the slaveholders, who had partially succeeded in creating an aristocracy in the midst of the republic. He was opposed to governing overmuch in a republic, and believed, even to the outbreak of the civil war, that the "let alone" policy should pervade legislation in all measures, not excepting those which pertained to slavery; and, in common with the body of the democracy, North and South, he maintained the doctrine of the utter incompetency of Congress, under the Constitution, to legislate upon the domestic institutions of the States, either by way of changing, abolishing, or preventing (by direct enactment) their extension over the territories of the Union.

Whatever may have been his earlier views, he very clearly states, in his first Presidential Message, the relations between the Central Government and the States. While separate rights may be possessed by States, they must necessarily be limited by the very existence of a common Constitution. The general principle is thus laid down:—"The Government of the United States is a limited Government; and so is every State Government a limited Government. With us this idea of limitation spreads through every form of administration—general, state, and municipal—and rests on the great distinguishing principle of the recognition of the rights of man. The ancient republics absorbed the individual in the State, prescribed his religion, and controlled his activity: the American system rests on the assertion of the equal right of every man to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; to freedom of conscience, to the culture and exercise of all his faculties. As a consequence, the State Government is limited as to the general government in the interest of the Union, as to the individual citizen in the interest of freedom.

"States, with proper limitations of power, are essential to the existence of the Constitution of the United States. Without States, one great branch of the legislative government would be wanting. And if we look beyond

the letter of the Constitution to the character of our country, its capacity for comprehending within its jurisdiction a vast continental empire is due to the system of States. The best security for the perpetual existence of the States is the 'supreme authority' of the Constitution of the States. The perpetuity of the Constitution brings with it the perpetuity of the States; their mutual relation makes us what we are, and in our political system their connection is indissoluble. The whole cannot exist without the parts, nor the parts without the whole. So long as the Constitution of the United States endures, the States will endure: the destruction of the one is the destruction of the other; the preservation of the one is the preservation of the other."

Of Mr. Johnson's ability to fulfil honourably and with distinction all the functions of his high office no unprejudiced person can doubt. Few men, from so low a starting-point in life, have attained to so proud an elevation. Born in obscurity and poverty, thrown entirely upon his own resources in childhood, literally ignorant of the very alphabet of the English language at that period of life when more fortunate youths are engaged in completing their school or collegiate course, toiling at a mechanical trade until mature age, at no period of his life receiving any of those adventitious aids which constitute something of the elements of almost every success, he yet progressed, step by step, through every intermediate grade of civil promotion, to the highest office in the gift of a great nation. Successively a village alderman and mayor, a State legislator, first in the Lower, then in the Upper House, a member of the Federal Congress, governor of a State, a member of the Federal Senate, Vice-President, and finally President of the United States, the whole career accomplished between the age of twenty-three and fifty-seven years, Andrew Johnson, who, in the face of so many obstacles, has achieved such success, must be possessed of energy, boldness, tenacity, with honesty and directness of purpose—of, in a word, all the sturdiest qualities of the Anglo-Saxon type of intellect. Still it must be confessed that his marvellous success is due partially to the fact that he was born on American soil, and under the peculiar institutions of the United States. Any man endowed with the temperament and qualities that have lifted Andrew Johnson from obscurity to as high and influential a position as that held by the greatest of earthly potentates, would, in all human probability, have raised himself far above the obscurity of his birth; but hardly, elsewhere, could even the possession of the qualities we have enumerated have exalted him to such an apex of worldly success. True it is that at rare intervals men have risen from obscurity to the pinnacle of human greatness in other countries; but in the United States the success that has attended Andrew Johnson's career is open to and may be achieved by any citizen of the soil, however lowly his birth, if he be possessed of the requisite energy, industry, and ability. As every fond French mother is said to believe that her soldier-son carries a field-marshal's *bâton* in his knapsack, so every ambitious American mother fancies her son a future President of the great republic. Few, very few, attain to the coveted positions in either country—few can by any possibility attain to them; still the paths to these high honours are open to all who choose to strive after them.

The resemblance between Andrew Jackson and Andrew Johnson is very striking, and it would appear that Mr. Johnson recognises this resemblance to his prototype, and models himself to make the resemblance



more visible. He frequently talks of him, frequently quotes him, and the analogy of career is not confined to similarity of views and principles. Both were of plebeian origin, born of poor and obscure parents; both migrated beyond the Alleghenies in early youth, and finally settled in Tennessee; both had defective educations, and both were attracted to political life as soon as they were entitled to a vote. Neither of them sought the alliance of wealthy or influential families as a stepping-stone to promotion; and both, as they rose to power, showed themselves the unwavering champions of the people from whom they rose, and with whom they ever retained an unbounded popularity. As executive officers the resemblance is as marked as are the facts of their personal history. No magistrate was ever more firm in his positions than General Jackson. No social blandishments, no pressure of personal influence could avail to swerve him from a line of policy that he had once deliberately adopted; and during the past four years Andrew Johnson has displayed similar qualities. Born a Southerner, he was for a time the idol of the slave-holding democrats; but, once convinced that slavery was an evil, he flung himself from his position down to the very depths—a homeless, landless, friendless man, and then fought his way back to the very top, as chief of the anti-slavery democrats. It is, however, to his bearing during the rebellion that his present position is mainly due; and, of all public men in the revolting States, he only, from the first, and at all stages of the struggle, kept his allegiance to the Union firm and true, indifferent alike to promises or threats. So great, in fact, was his antipathy to the Secessionists that it was feared, when first he took his seat in the Presidential chair—even by the more moderate men of his own party—that his hatred of what he held to be the vilest treason would urge him to an unjust and unwarrantable persecution of his fallen foes. When, however, he and the nation over which he is the presiding chief had somewhat cooled down from the first outburst of indignation and horror consequent upon the tragic fate of the late lamented President Lincoln, he relented and showed a desire to conciliate rather than to punish; and, to all appearance, his present object—to the disgust of the more violent supporters of the Republican party—is rather to win than to force back the Southern States to their allegiance. His inaugural Message is moderate in its tone, both as to American and foreign affairs. Contrary to the preconceived opinion of many alarmists, it informs us that the American Government is desirous to maintain friendly terms with foreign powers; and, although, as has been anticipated, the President speaks somewhat indignantly of the conduct of Great Britain during the late momentous struggle—as that conduct was regarded by American eyes—his Message is all in all as satisfactory as could reasonably be hoped or expected.

Our limited space warns us that it is time to bring our brief memoir to a close; and this we do with a few remarks which we condense from an American journal, upon the domestic and business habits of the President:—

"President Johnson is a model of industry, and is one of the most laborious men who ever filled the executive office. He rises at six o'clock, and during an hour and a half reads the papers, and then takes his breakfast, immediately afterwards going to the executive office, and beginning the labours of the day. He reads huge bundles of letters, and dictates replies to his secretaries. Applications for appointments, promotions, discharges from the army and navy, political advice, petitions for executive clemency—averaging two hundred a

day—and innumerable other documents, are rapidly disposed of; but, before the labour is half ended, visitors have begun to flock in to the antechambers, and to thrust their cards upon him. Pardon-seekers, politicians, and owners of confiscated property pace before the President's door, and women, with indescribable effrontery, insist upon immediate admission. The attendants before long announce their inability to keep the throng out, and, suspending his labours, the President permits the visitors to enter one by one. Then begin new perplexities, and until two or three o'clock the President is kept busy with visitors; when, the hour growing late, he fortifies himself with a couple of secretaries, and orders the doors to be thrown open to all. The throng presses towards him, and, one by one, he receives his visitors and makes known, in a few courteous words, his decision upon the application made to him. The secretaries record these decisions, and after nearly an hour's waiting the throng is disposed of and dismissed, and, with a sigh of relief, the President goes to dinner. After dining he returns to his office, and remains until eleven o'clock, still disposing of the documents on his table. His habits are regular, and he always retires about eleven. In addition to all these duties, there are constant audiences of distinguished visitors. Representatives of foreign courts, governors, Congress-men, and generals are always admitted whenever they present themselves. Every one has some subject to talk of that requires care and deliberation; and over all towers the great and perplexing problem of reconstruction. The condition of the South, and of the finances, are, of themselves, matters sufficiently important to demand his exclusive attention, could he give it."

The first house President Johnson lived in after he came to Greenville is said to be still standing, as is also the first house and "lot" he called his own, a humble edifice that has suffered severely from ill-usage during the war. The tailor's shop in which he first plied his trade, and over the door of which his name, "A. Johnson, tailor," is painted in crude letters, in imitation of the original sign, is now occupied by an old negro, once a slave of Andrew Johnson's, and his successor in the tailoring business. It is built of rough boarding, simply whitewashed. On either end the boards are torn off in places, and the chimney is crumbling to decay; but the old negro boasts that "Massa Johnson been in de trade—de boss tailor of dese diggins." On the main street of the village, standing in front of a small "lot," is the present private residence of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States. It is a humble, old-fashioned-looking, two-storey brick house, having but one entrance from the street. In front of it stand three or four shade trees, and in the lot there are several young apple-trees, while between them potatoes are growing; and at the lower end a grape-vine, trained upon a trellis, forms a pleasant bower. Scattered over the ground are several rose, currant, and gooseberry bushes, and at the lower end of the lot, and just outside, stand two large weeping-willows, bending over and shading a very beautiful spring. The fence of the lot and the windows of the house show evident signs of dilapidation, the consequences of rebellion and rebel rule. Like many other windows in the houses at the South, a number of panes of glass are broken out, and their place supplied with paper, glass not being obtainable in the Confederacy.

In this dwelling of small pretensions lived Andrew Johnson until the outbreak of the civil war, and to this dwelling he will probably retire when the term of his Presidency is ended; for he is far from being a rich man,

although he possesses a moderate competence; and, even if he were otherwise inclined, the small salary of the President of the United States—twenty-five thousand dollars, or £5000—is all required to support the dignity of the high position, and has been found by those presidents who, like Johnson, have had but small private means of their own, all too small to pay the necessary expenses, and maintain the state that is needful even in a Republic.

Andrew Johnson, however, is not the man likely to covet the possession of great wealth, and he will doubtless retire to private life perfectly satisfied with his moderately independent condition.

### THE WEATHER OF THE YEAR 1865.

BY JAMES GLAISHER, ESQ., F.R.S.

The year 1865 will stand out as a very remarkable year. It opened with cold weather, which prevailed with little variation till April; this cold period was followed by one so hot that, taking the six months together ending with September, there is no previous instance in which the temperature of the same period of the year was so high. The predominance of cold at the beginning of the year; the sudden change from wintry weather on April 5th to summer weather, and to unusual heat for the season; the anxieties respecting the crops during the year; the visitation of the cattle disease, and the threatened visitation of the cholera epidemic next year, give to all the facts of this year an unusual degree of importance. The following are the principal particulars of every month in the year:—

#### JANUARY.

The year opened with cold and frost. After the first few days the weather became mild for the season, and from the 4th day to the 16th the temperature was in excess of the average to the daily amount of  $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ; the sky was mostly cloudy, and the wind frequently blowing a gale. In the British Channel particularly, westerly gales set in with terrific effect, numerous wrecks were strewn along the coast, causing great damage to property, and an unusually great loss of life.

At Greenwich, on the 6th, there were pressures of the wind of 21 lbs. on the square foot, the same being experienced at several other parts of the country; another of 15 lbs. on the 12th; a third of  $17\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. on the 13th, and on the 14th of no less than 29 lbs., being the greatest pressure recorded at Greenwich for twenty years. At noon on the latter day several large trees were blown down at Calne and Aldershot; the velocity of the wind, as registered by Robinson's anemometer, was seventy-two and seventy-four miles per hour respectively. At Osborne the wind had been exceedingly boisterous during the night of the 13th; at a quarter past two on the afternoon of the 12th day an indeed extraordinary pressure for the extreme south of England was recorded of 32 lbs. on the square foot. On the same day, at Streatly, in Berkshire, hail fell to the depth of two inches during a thunderstorm.

From the 19th of January to the close of the month the weather was exceedingly severe all over the country, the temperature of the air being lower than  $20^{\circ}$  at many places, at some even below  $10^{\circ}$ ; for instance, at Lampeter, the lowest temperature registered was  $5^{\circ}\cdot 0$ , at Banbury,  $5^{\circ}\cdot 7$ , Marlborough College,  $5^{\circ}\cdot 8$ , Oxford,  $6^{\circ}\cdot 0$ , Eccles,  $6^{\circ}\cdot 0$ , Berkhamstead,  $7^{\circ}\cdot 0$ , and at Wilton,  $8^{\circ}\cdot 5$ . At Clifton, near Bristol, snow fell to the depth of five inches on the 27th; and during the night of the 28th, at Bath, fog froze on the trees, and incrustated every

branch with ice, presenting a brilliant appearance in the sun, but causing great havoc among the branches of the trees through the weight of the ice. All shrubs, laurels, etc., were prostrated on the ground by the weight of the ice and snow on their leaves. On the 29th day snow was eighteen inches thick at Orleton. At Seathwaite, at the end of the month, snow was two feet in thickness, and in railway-cuttings from ten to twelve feet. The copious rain and snow supplied the country with abundant water, relieving farmers in many parts of England from the trouble and expense of fetching it from a distance, which they had been compelled to do for months previously. The agricultural reports were generally favourable.

At Greenwich the mean temperature for the whole month was  $36\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ , being nearly  $2^{\circ}$  colder than the average. Of the high temperature by day the mean was  $41^{\circ}$  nearly, and of the low by night was  $31\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ; and these values are  $2\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$  and  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  below their respective averages—therefore both the days and nights were cold.

#### FEBRUARY.

The weather at the beginning of February was still cold, unsettled, wild, and stormy, with almost total absence of sunshine; snow fell on many occasions, and on some almost uninterruptedly all day long, extending at the same time nearly all over the United Kingdom. Communications by railway as well as by telegraph were repeatedly interrupted by heavy snowfalls or gales of wind. Little progress was made with out-door operations during this time.

On the 19th and 20th days of February a gale raged on the south-eastern, eastern, and more northern parts of the country with considerable violence. At Aldershot the wind sprang up from the W., at 3 p.m. on the 19th veered round to the N.W. with increased fury, and a pressure of 27 lbs. on the square foot was recorded, the gale continuing with little intermission during the following day. At Berkhamstead merely high winds were reported. At Wisbeach pressures of 10 lbs. were registered. At Eccles the storm lasted only about three hours about midday on the 19th; the horizontal movement of the air, as noted by the use of Robinson's anemometer, varied from forty to seventy miles per hour. Much damage was done to buildings.

At Cockermouth the storm was not experienced, but the barometer reading rose in a most remarkable manner, having increased  $0\cdot 94$  inch in the twelve hours between 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. on the 19th. The report from Culloden shows that the day was very stormy throughout, with snow in heavy drifts, which blocked up all the roads and railways, accumulating in wreaths of five and six feet in thickness, and on the 20th at that place the total depth of snow (where not drifted), when measured on the ground, amounted to sixteen inches. At Monkstown (Ireland) the barometer reading rose nearly an inch on the 19th; the gale was felt with great severity afterwards.

The wintry weather, which returned in the third week, continued to the close of the month. The temperature of the month of February was generally very low, but more particularly so between the 11th and 15th days, when a temperature as low as  $8^{\circ}$  was noted at Birmingham, and at various places the thermometer reading fell below  $10^{\circ}$ .

The mean temperature of the month of February was  $36^{\circ}\cdot 6$ , being  $1^{\circ}$  only warmer than in January. Of the high day temperature the value was  $42\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ , and this is  $2\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$  lower than the average; and of low night temperature the value was  $32\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ —its average value is  $33\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ ; there-

fore both the days and nights were cold, but the days to a greater amount than the nights.

The lowest temperature of the air at Greenwich, at a point four feet above the ground, was  $15\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , being lower than any noted in February since 1841, with the exception of the years 1845, 1847, and 1855.

## MARCH.

Snow to small amounts continued to fall, chiefly crystalline in character, till after the equinox; the month was cold and ungenial throughout, agricultural operations were very much interrupted, vegetation made but little progress.

On the 4th day 0.9 inch of rain fell at Cuckermouth in six hours, being more than one third the total rainfall during the month; the greatest depression of the barometer occurred during the same time, the extreme readings for the month, highest and lowest, being within forty-eight hours. At Guernsey the temperature of the month was lower (with two exceptions) than any other March since 1845. The deficiency of temperature on some days was as large as from  $9^{\circ}$  to  $14^{\circ}$ ; and at Greenwich, for the seventy-four days ending 31st March, the average daily deficiency of temperature amounted to  $3^{\circ}8$ —a very large amount for so long a period. This unseasonable weather caused nearly all agricultural operations to be stopped, and at the end of the month field-work was generally in a backward state, vegetation had made but little progress, and in many places the wheat crop appeared deteriorated.

The mean temperature of March was  $36^{\circ}6$ , being precisely the same as in February: usually March is  $3\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  warmer than February. The large deficiency of temperature in March, amounting to  $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  upon the whole month, fully accounts for the standstill of all agricultural operations. To find one so cold we must go back twenty years, or to the year 1845, when it was  $35^{\circ}2$ ; back again to 1837, we find one of  $35^{\circ}8$ ; then none of so low temperature, looking backwards, to 1814, when it was  $35^{\circ}1$ ; and for twenty-five years before this year there was no March of such low temperature. In 1789 it was  $34^{\circ}4$ , in 1786 it was  $34^{\circ}2$ , in 1785 it was  $33^{\circ}9$ , in 1784 it was  $36^{\circ}2$ , and in 1771 it was  $34^{\circ}7$ . From this it will be seen that the month of March was much more frequently cold towards the end of the last century than it has been lately.

## APRIL.

The month of April opened under more favourable auspices. The temperature, though still harsh, with piercing easterly winds and occasional night frosts, became more seasonable, and at the close of the first week it assumed a spring-like character. The sky was mostly clouded, but little rain fell. The change from the wintry weather was very beneficial. Farmers resumed ploughing, sowing, and other field-work in season. Vegetation progressed only slowly, from the effects of the late unfavourable weather. The autumn-sown wheat had previously exhibited as unpromising an appearance as is rarely observed at this season, many fields being quite bare. The meadows and pastures indicated a standstill in the growth of grass.

In the second week the weather was uninterruptedly fine. The wind varied, and some nights at the beginning of the week were still frosty; but ultimately the temperature became almost summer-like. The transition from winter to summer was remarkably sudden. Vegetation rapidly revived from its wintry stupor; meadows and pastures soon became clothed with fresh verdure; fruit-trees were budding into blossoms, and hedges were shooting new leaves. Farmers resumed

field-work, and were busy ploughing and sowing. The accounts from agricultural districts became more hopeful; but still there were apprehensions that the harvest this year would be late, and the produce not equal to that of last year. The next week the sky was more cloudy, accompanied by a moderate amount of rain, and a lower temperature; but the late change to a warmer temperature stimulated vegetation to a rapid growth. Nature appeared in all the loveliness of spring, with trees and shrubs covered with new foliage, whilst the meadows changed their late dingy colour to one of bright green. The autumn-sown wheat also improved, and the prospects of the new harvest were much better. The latter part of the month was remarkably fine for the season. The sky was generally bright, with brilliant sunshine in daytime, and clear at night, though some mornings were hazy. The temperature rose to summer-heat, excepting on the eastern coast. The weather was all the farmers could desire, excepting that the pastures and meadows and recently-sown spring corn needed rain and a less forcing temperature. The highest temperature of the air at Greenwich was  $81\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , which took place on the 27th day. This high temperature was very remarkable: it was higher than any on record in the month of April. The highest, up to the present time, observed was  $79^{\circ}$ , in 1859. This high temperature on 27th April, 1865, was not experienced in places whose latitude exceeded  $53^{\circ}$ ; for instance, at Birmingham it was  $73^{\circ}$ , at Wakefield  $63^{\circ}$ , at Manchester  $56^{\circ}$ , and at Liverpool  $55^{\circ}$  only.

The mean temperature of the month of April was  $52\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , being nearly  $15\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  warmer than the preceding month; it was  $4^{\circ}$  warmer than in the April of the year 1864, and was  $5\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  of higher temperature than the average of the year for this month. The month of April was indeed remarkable: there is none on record of such high temperature. The nearest approach was in the year 1844, when it was  $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ; and there are only two other instances, back to the year 1779, of it exceeding  $50^{\circ}$ .

The usual increase of temperature from March to April is about  $5^{\circ}$ . In this year, at places south of latitude  $53^{\circ}$ , it was as large as  $12^{\circ}$  to  $17^{\circ}$ , and at stations north of this parallel it was as large as  $8^{\circ}$  to  $10^{\circ}$ .

This great increase of temperature was mostly experienced by day. The average highest temperature by day in April is  $57^{\circ}$ , and in this year it was  $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , exceeding the average by  $9\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . The average of the low night temperature is  $38\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , but in this month it was  $41\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ; therefore both nights and days were warm, but particularly the days.

The effects of this remarkably high temperature were to efface every trace of the backward season at the end of February.

The fall of rain was very small, being at Greenwich less than one quarter of its usual amount.

## MAY.

At the beginning of the month of May rain fell in many parts of the country, accompanied by a rising temperature, which proved of great service to the crops and pastures. The country presented an aspect of unusual luxuriance: the meadows and pastures generally promised a heavy crop. Potato planting was completed under favourable circumstances. Towards the close of the month the weather was fine, summer-like, and the wind changeable. Thunder-storms occurred, accompanied with heavy rain. Through the sudden flood, rivers rose above their banks, and some low-lying localities were inundated, and damage done to the growing crops, as well as to property. Agricultural accounts con-



tituted favourable, the weather generally being all that farmers could desire at the time. The corn crops, as well as haymaking, were considered a fortnight in advance of last year. The month, on the whole, was a genial one, and favourable to vegetation; but the close of the month was stormy, the wind blowing a gale from west, accompanied in some places by heavy rain. At Cockermonth, during a thunder-storm on the 23rd, 0·56 inch of rain fell in twenty minutes. On the 29th rain fell heavily during the whole of the day, the amount collected between 2 a.m. on that day, and 4 a.m. on the following, being 2·54 inches, and of this 1·6 inch was collected between 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. on the 29th.

The month of May is usually  $5\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$  warmer than that of April; but, in consequence of the very remarkable weather in April, this year the increase to May was  $8\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$  only. Yet the high temperature in May was remarkable: its mean was  $56^{\circ}\cdot 1$ , being  $3^{\circ}\cdot 3$  above the average of the preceding twenty-four years; and though less remarkable than April, yet it is worthy of noting that we have to travel back seventeen years, to the year 1848, to find one so warm. The warmth of May was pretty well evenly distributed over the days and nights: the high temperature of the former was  $67^{\circ}\cdot 9$ —its average is  $64^{\circ}\cdot 5$ ; and of the latter was  $46^{\circ}\cdot 3$ , and its average is  $44^{\circ}\cdot 2$ ; so that the excess of temperature by day was somewhat less than  $8\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ , and by night was  $2\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ .

The fall of rain in May was large, being at Greenwich  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches, being greater in amount than in any May as far back as the year 1824, when the same amount was collected, which has only been exceeded on one occasion since the year 1815—viz., in 1817, when the rain-fall was as large as 4·6 inches.

## JUNE.

The weather in June was warm to the 11th day, and from the 20th to the 26th days; it was mostly cold at other times. There were some heavy thunder-storms, and partial copious rains. Haymaking proceeded satisfactorily. At the end of the month the harvest reports represented wheat as promising on heavy soils, while on light soils it was said to be short in quantity; oats in many places had failed; barley looked well, but needed rain; the potato crop continued healthy, but root crops were suffering for the want of rain.

The temperature of the month was  $60^{\circ}\cdot 2$ , being an increase of  $4^{\circ}\cdot 1$  in May, and was  $2^{\circ}\cdot 8$  warmer than in the preceding year. The average for this month is  $59^{\circ}$ ; so that the temperature was an excess of  $1^{\circ}\cdot 1$  above the average. The excess was wholly due to day temperature, as the nights were somewhat colder than their average for June.

The fall of rain in June was a little more than an average; but it fell heavily, and nearly together. There were twenty-six consecutive days in this month without rain.

## JULY.

During the first three weeks of July the weather was unsettled: the temperature of the air was alternately in excess and defect. Rain fell frequently between the 6th and the 18th all over the British Isles, and during this period harvest-work proceeded very slowly. Some complaints were heard of mildew. The potato crop, which had needed moisture, became very promising after the rain. About the 20th of the month the period changed from a cloudy and wet to one clear and dry, which proved most beneficial to the growing as well as to the maturing cereal crops. Till the 30th day the temperature was in excess to the amount of  $2^{\circ}$  daily, but on the 31st the weather changed again to cold and wet, harvest-work was a good deal impeded and prospects

damped; previous to this nothing was heard of the potato disease, but now indications were seen both in Ireland and England.

The mean temperature of this month was  $63^{\circ}\cdot 8$ , being  $2^{\circ}\cdot 1$  above the average. Both days and nights were warm. The fall of rain was 2·3 inches in amount, being a little less than the average.

## AUGUST.

In August the weather continued unsettled; rain fell heavily in various parts of the country, and the deficiency of daily temperature amounted to  $3^{\circ}$  daily. Although the root crops were benefited by the moisture, cereal crops, which required fine weather for maturing, suffered, and harvest-work for several days was stopped; and it was feared that, in localities where the wheat crop had been laid, damage would be done by sprouting, as by far the larger portion of the crops of the United Kingdom was still standing. The potato crop also displayed increased symptoms of disease. On the 20th day the weather improved a little, and there were intervals of bright sunshine. From that day till the end of the month, the temperature was in excess to the amount of  $1^{\circ}$  daily; but the weather continued changeable. Rain left off in the southern parts of the United Kingdom, but appeared in rather heavy showers in the northern parts of Scotland and Ireland. Farmers took advantage of every interval of sunshine to push forward harvest-work, and some extent of country was cleared of its produce. The month generally, however, proved very unfavourable to farmers. Instead of fine, dry, warm weather, to mature the crops and favour the harvest, rain put the whole in jeopardy. All the hopes which the splendid previous weather had awakened were completely blasted, and at one time serious fears were felt that, instead of securing a very abundant harvest, scarcely an average would be obtained. The month was very unfavourable to the crops.

The mean high day temperature at Greenwich in the month of August was nearly  $71^{\circ}$ , the average being nearly  $78^{\circ}$ .

The mean low night temperature was  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  below the average.

The mean temperature of August was  $59^{\circ}\cdot 9$ , being also lower than the average of the last twenty-four years by  $1^{\circ}\cdot 4$ .

The fall of rain in August amounted to four inches, exceeding the average for the month by 1·6 inch.

## SEPTEMBER.

With the month of September came an auspicious change. During the first part of the month no rain fell, excepting some showers in the north of Scotland and Ireland. The barometer continued steadily above thirty inches. The temperature rose to an almost tropical degree. The wind predominated from the north, then turned westward, and afterwards from the east. The favourable change from intermittent rain to glorious sunshine in daytime and bright moonlight at night enabled farmers to push forward the cutting, carrying, and stacking of the bulk of the cereal crops. So protracted had been the harvest south of latitude  $53^{\circ}$ , that reaping and carting had become almost simultaneous in England, Scotland, and Ireland. Respecting the yield great uncertainty prevailed, but so much had been ascertained that great variety existed in the quantity, quality, weight, and condition of all kinds of cereals. By the middle of the month only a small portion in the latest districts remained uncarried. A great deal of the mischief done in the latter part of August was counteracted. The potato crop, though large, was rapidly

decaying in an increased number of places. The root crops had generally much improved in appearance, and likewise the pastures and meadows. Rain fell in various parts of the United Kingdom on the 20th. The cereal harvest had been brought to a close, with the exception of the very latest districts in the Highlands. The long spell of fine weather helped considerably to improve that portion of the crops which had been cut whilst the rain was falling in the latter part of August, and had been secured wet or damp. The result of the harvest was still doubtful, but the prevailing opinion was that the wheat crop would fall short of an average in quantity and weight, and be of various quality and condition. The barley crop was the largest of the cereals. The oat crop was reported generally small. The potato crop was considered large, but partially diseased. The root crops were much improved in appearance, and promising an average produce.

At the close of the month of September the weather still continued unchanged, although slightly frosty at night in some localities. The barometer still continued very high. A few showers of rain were experienced at some places. The harvest was completed in every part of the kingdom earlier than in any one of the previous twenty years. Farmers began to prepare the land for sowing, and rain was required to prepare the ground for the working of the plough as well as for cattle.

The mean high day temperature of the month of September at Greenwich was above the average to the large amount of  $9^{\circ}$ .

The mean low night temperature was  $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  above the average of the preceding twenty-four years.

The excess over the averages of  $9^{\circ}$  by day and nearly  $5^{\circ}$  by night in September are indeed remarkable, in both cases being higher than any before met with.

During the high temperature in September there was less than one-half the usual amount of cloud; the air was bright and clear, and the whole rain for the month was less than one quarter of an inch. During the period from 1814 so small an amount of rain had never been recorded in the month of September.

The mean temperature of September was  $63^{\circ}\cdot 9$ , being  $7^{\circ}$  above that of last year, and exceeding the average of twenty-four years by the same amount.

The temperature of this month was remarkable indeed. As far back as 1771 there is no instance of one so warm. The nearest approach was  $62^{\circ}\cdot 3$  in 1815. So that the temperature of this month is more than  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  higher than any other on record.

Equally, if not more remarkable, is the mean temperature of the six months ending September. Notwithstanding the low temperature in August (which was near  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  below the average), the period ranks higher than any on record. The mean temperature of the six months from April 1865 to September 1865 is  $59^{\circ}\cdot 4$ ; in 1859, for the same period, it was  $58^{\circ}\cdot 2$ ; in 1857 it was  $58^{\circ}\cdot 6$ ; in 1846 it was  $59^{\circ}\cdot 1$ ; in 1818 it was  $58^{\circ}\cdot 6$ ; in 1775 it was  $58^{\circ}\cdot 1$ ; and there is no other instance back to 1771 of a temperature reaching  $58^{\circ}$ . The only one in ninety-five years closely approximating was in 1846, which was only  $0^{\circ}\cdot 3$  nearly lower; still this difference, though apparently small, is considerable, considering the period is one half a year in length.

## OCTOBER.

Fine weather continued during the first part of October. Sunny days and moonlight nights followed each other in succession, with only short interruptions of passing clouds and occasional morning mists and fogs. The barometer reading generally ranged above

thirty inches. Farmers were busy lifting potatoes, cleaning the land, and commencing in some places, on light lands, ploughing and sowing. The plough could not be brought into use on heavy soil, through the ground being so hard from the droughty hot weather during the preceding five weeks. Root crops suffered from the want of moisture.

In the second week of October, however, indications were perceptible of an impending change. The barometer fell, at some places reaching a very low point. The temperature became cooler, the nights being in some places frosty. The wind rose at times on the east coast of the country to the height of a gale, causing great destruction of property and loss of life. After a space of six weeks' absence from rain, it fell extensively over all parts of the kingdom, supplying the dried-up earth with the much-desired moisture.

In the following week rain descended every day. The pressure of the atmosphere decreased very much at some places, the wind blowing on some occasions with great violence. In the fourth week the weather continued unsettled. Rain fell heavily, threatening to do even more damage to agricultural produce than the preceding drought. Gales were also experienced, doing great damage to shipping. At the close of the month the weather continued very stormy, rain falling in abundance, and with exceedingly high winds. Some snow was also experienced in the north.

The greater part of the month of October was very unfavourable; the rain, coming down in such quantities after so long a drought, brought the heavy lands into such a state that ploughing and field-work generally were impracticable, and therefore caused them to get very much in arrear. Potato lifting remained in many cases unfinished, and the disease extended. Low-lying lands were flooded, and rivers overflowed and inundated adjoining fields.

The mean temperature of October was  $50^{\circ}\cdot 9$ , being  $13^{\circ}$  of lower value than in September; the usual decrease of temperature from October to September is  $6^{\circ}\cdot 4$ . The average temperature of October is  $50\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . The day temperatures in this month were  $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  above their averages, but the nights were nearly  $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  below their averages; thus the days were warm and the nights cold.

Rain fell on nineteen days in the month to the amount of six inches, being  $3\cdot 2$  inches greater than the average for the month. In the year 1841 rain fell to the same amount in October, being the only instance for fifty years of such heavy rains in this month.

## NOVEMBER.

November opened with frequent gales and much stormy weather, causing numerous disasters at sea. Rain fell heavily all over the kingdom, and some snow was experienced in the north. At intervals some ploughing and sowing was done on light soils, but the large amount of rain in October had necessarily stopped the usage of the plough on heavy lands.

At about the 10th day the weather assumed the aspect of a more settled character; the barometer reading was generally above the average; the temperature was more seasonable; some of the nights were frosty. Rain still fell, though not to such an extent as previously. Sowing proceeded slowly. Potato lifting was partially resumed; the disease was still complained of in England and Scotland; the reports from Ireland, however, showed the crop to be generally sound.

In the third week the pressure of the atmosphere again decreased, followed by rain in almost every quarter. On some favoured spots early-sown wheat

commenced appearing above ground. Under the influence of drying winds, and absence of rain for several days, some land was worked and sowing completed.

From the 17th to the 22nd of November the barometer reading decreased very rapidly, followed by a terrific gale from north-west and south-west, acting with ruinous effect on both land and sea. Rain fell almost daily in all parts of the country, ploughing and sowing being again interrupted in many places. Late-sown wheat was very seldom seen, its appearance being retarded by the excessive moisture. A good deal of out-door work remained to be done at the close of the month.

The mean temperature of November was  $44^{\circ}8$ , being  $0^{\circ}8$  above its average; the days, like those in the preceding month, were warm, being  $1^{\circ}7$  above their average; whilst the nights were of their average value.

At Greenwich rain fell on eighteen days to the amount of 2.4 inches, which is that of the average for this month, making from January 1 a total of 28.2 inches, exceeding the average by 4.9 inches.

Collecting the horizontal movements of the air with different readings of the barometer during the months of October and November, the following were the results:—

When the readings	miles.
Exceeded 30 in., the average daily horizontal movement of air was 130	
About 30 in. " " "	100
Between 29.5 and 30 in. " " "	210
Between 29.0 and 29.5 in. " " "	200
Below 29.0 in. " " "	230

Thus showing that whenever the barometer reading was above the average, the wind has been moderate, and

that as the barometer decreased the motion of the air increased, and was the greatest at the lowest readings.

## DECEMBER.

This month opened with light S.E. winds and a cloudy sky. On the 2nd day at night, in a balloon ascent, the S.E. wind was found limited to 3500 feet from the earth; above this the air passed from S.S.W. With the exception of a few days about the middle, the month was very warm, and the air for the most part in gentle motion. Trees budded and daisies were in blossom. On the 27th day the barometer decreased rapidly all over the country, and on Friday, the 29th, at 4 p.m., at Liverpool, it was as low as 28.87 inches; at Pocklington, in Yorkshire, it was 28.91 inches at 7 p.m., and at Greenwich, at 7h. 15m. a.m., 29.00 inches. The wind increased in strength; and on Saturday night violent gales from the S.W. were experienced all over the country and round the coasts. The force of the gale at King's Cross, Halifax, was 30 lbs. on the square foot at 3 p.m. on the 29th, 20 lbs. one hour afterwards, and by 7 p.m. the wind was nearly gone. On the 30th a few flakes of snow fell, and hailstones the size of peas, two inches deep; some snow also fell at Manchester. The gales of wind on Saturday night increased in violence, and there were many shipwrecks around the coast. The force of wind at 2 a.m. on December 31st, at Liverpool, was 24 lbs., and at Greenwich was 24 lbs., and blowing a hurricane around the coasts; it afterwards temporarily lulled. The year ended with rain falling and very high temperature. The following table shows the monthly and yearly meteorological elements for this year:—

## METEOROLOGY OF 1865.

Results deduced from the Meteorological Register kept at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, during the year 1865.

1865.	TEMPERATURE OF AIR.																		RELATIVE PROPORTION OF WIND.				RAIN.	
MONTH.	Mean Reading of Barometer at the height of 16.1 ft. above the sea, corrected to 32° Fahrenheit.	Highest by Day.	Lowest by Night.	Range in Month.	Mean of all Highest.	Mean of all Lowest.	Mean Daily Range.	Mean for Month.	Departure from Average of 54 Years.	Mean Temperature of the Day-point.	Mean Tension of Vapour.	Weight of Vapour in a Cubic Foot of Air.	Mean additional Weight required for Saturation.	Mean Degree of Humidity. Saturation = 100.	Mean Weight of a Cubic Foot of Air.	N.	E.	S.	W.	Mean Amount of Cloud, 0 = clear; 10 = overcast.	No. of Days it fell.	Amount collected.		
January	In. 29.405	Deg. 60.2	Deg. 19.6	Deg. 30.6	Deg. 40.9	Deg. 31.8	Deg. 9.1	Deg. 36.3	Deg. -1.9	Deg. 33.0	In. .188	Grs. 2.2	Gr. 0.4	69	Gms. 550	5	4	9	13	7.2	15	In. 3.3		
February	29.723	62.7	15.5	37.2	42.3	32.2	10.0	36.6	-2.1	32.1	.182	2.1	0.5	83	555	7	5	7	9	7.8	10	1.9		
March	29.720	59.7	23.7	35.0	44.0	31.1	12.9	36.6	-5.4	30.8	.172	2.0	0.5	82	555	14	6	4	7	7.7	10	0.9		
April	29.954	61.5	31.9	49.6	66.3	41.5	24.8	53.3	+5.7	44.0	.238	3.3	1.1	73	543	8	9	7	6	4.2	7	0.4		
May	29.768	79.5	31.4	47.1	67.9	46.3	21.6	56.1	+3.2	47.5	.329	3.6	1.4	73	534	4	3	12	13	6.4	18	4.4		
June	30.029	87.6	41.2	46.4	79.6	49.9	23.7	60.2	+1.2	50.4	.366	4.1	1.7	70	534	10	7	5	8	5.9	5	2.4		
July	29.796	85.0	47.0	38.0	76.7	54.3	21.4	63.9	+2.1	54.2	.421	4.7	1.9	72	527	6	2	8	16	6.5	11	3.3		
August	29.712	78.0	43.2	34.8	70.9	51.5	19.4	60.9	-1.4	53.4	.409	4.5	1.2	80	520	6	2	8	15	7.0	17	4.0		
September	30.071	86.0	40.2	45.8	78.4	63.6	22.8	63.9	+7.0	55.9	.447	5.0	1.6	76	531	5	3	8	9	3.2	1	0.2		
October	29.440	71.7	33.5	39.2	60.0	43.7	16.3	60.9	+0.4	47.0	.333	3.9	0.6	87	533	5	7	9	10	6.2	19	5.9		
November	29.720	56.4	31.0	25.4	50.8	38.7	12.1	44.8	+0.8	41.4	.261	3.0	0.4	88	546	6	5	11	8	6.2	18	2.4		
December	30.058	52.7	29.2	23.5	46.7	39.1	6.6	42.4	+2.1	39.4	.241	2.8	0.4	69	554	5	4	13	9	8.3	10	0.9		
Means	29.783	69.9	32.3	37.6	59.6	42.7	16.9	50.3	+1.0	44.1	.301	3.4	1.0	80	541	60 sum	62	101	122	6.4	136 sum	29.0 sum		
No. of Column	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22		

Prepared for "The Leisure Hour" by James Glaisher, Esq., F.R.S.

The headings to the several columns will explain sufficiently the numbers in this table. Few years have had so marked a character. At the commencement of the year it was cold, and for three months there were scarcely any variations of temperature, as is shown in column 8, and these were below their averages, as shown by the sign - in column 9. Then, with the exception of August, every month has a + sign, showing an excess of temperature for that month above the average, particularly in the month of September. The mean temperature of the whole year, in the bottom line of

column 8 is  $50^{\circ}3$ , being  $1^{\circ}$  above the average yearly temperature, as shown in column 9. The rainfall is 29 inches, being  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches above the average fall.

During the whole year not a single choleraic meteorological symptom has been seen; and the year closed with strong winds and gales, the influence of which is always to purify and clear the atmosphere; there is also an abundance of pure water for cattle; both hopeful signs that the present pestilence among cattle may be of short duration, and to lessen the fear of the threatened visitation of the cholera.



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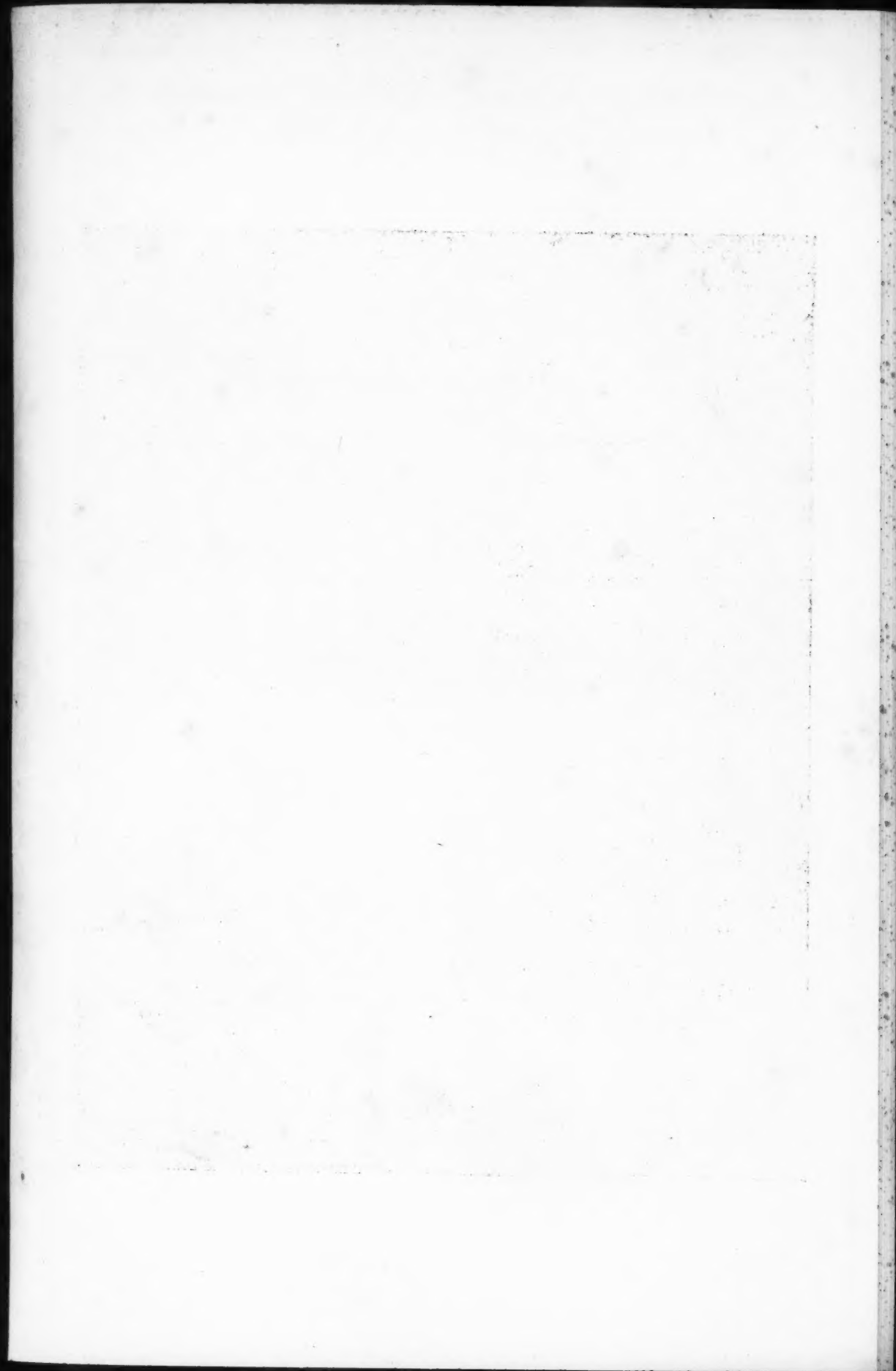
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